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GEOGRAPHICAL NOTES.

The Pronunciation and Orthography of Geographical Names.—It is to be hoped that the International Geographical Congress of 1889 will do something for the proposition, at least, of a working system for writing the names of tribes and peoples and places in those parts of the world that are not European by language. Schemes there are in abundance, and any one of them, if it were generally adopted, would do away with a vast amount of confusion; but the difficulty is to get a concert of action among geographers. This the Congress alone has the power to secure, and the coming occasion ought not to be lost.

No one of the obstacles that stand in the way of the adoption of a prime meridian, or the introduction of the decimal system of weights and measures, has to be encountered in this reform. National pride, mental habits, old associations and darling vanities are left untouched, for the outlandish names, strange under any form, have taken root neither in English nor in German, nor in French nor in Italian.

Prof. Alfred Kirchhoff treats this subject of pronunciation in the *Deutsche Rundschau für Geographie und Statistik* for October, with special reference to the practice of German travellers and writers, and the correction of the existing errors in the German transcription of foreign names.

With or without the support of the International Geographical Congress every traveller, of whatever language, can observe the simple recommendation with which Prof. Kirchhoff closes his paper:

"The more we ought to insist upon pronouncing names as nearly as possible in the way they are sounded on the spot, so much the more it becomes the duty of our explorers to give us the precise sound and accentuation of all names. How easy it is to write after Chihuahua (Che wah' wa), and how much it helps!"

On the Occupation of Territory.—The Institute of International Law, which met at Lausanne in September last, made an effort to agree upon the rules and principles to be applied to the occupation of territories, either uninhabited or in the possession of people not yet civilized. Mr. Martitz, of the University of Tübingen, presented a report from the committee appointed in 1885 to consider the subject. The first article of this report declared: "Any and every region, which is not found to be under the sovereignty or protectorate of one of the States which form the community of the Law of Nations, is to be held and considered as a territory without an owner; and this, whether the said region is inhabited, or not."

If this principle is admitted, says the Madrid Revista de Geografia Comercial, it follows that all the savage or barbarous tribes of Africa are to be regarded as destitute of individual rights, and are, therefore, at the mercy of the first comer. This is neither more nor less than a law of force, invented for the use of civilised nations in order to enable them to wrest from inferior races the country that is rightfully their own. The Institute took the same view, and rejected the article.

M. Engelhardt, of the French diplomatic corps, proposed the adoption of the following resolution:

"The Institute, considering that the greater part of the acquisitions of territory made within these later years in the African Continent have for a basis agreements made directly with the native chiefs, declares itself favorable to this proceeding, and holds that it ought to be the rule for future occupations."

The Institute approved the sentiment of the resolution, but decided not to commit itself to the recognition of the rule.

THE CROSSING OF GREENLAND.—Dr. Nansen, a Norwegian explorer, on the 17th July last, reached Sermilik Fjord, on the E. coast of Greenland, 65° 30′ N. Lat., intending to cross the country to Christianshaab on the W. coast.

The attempts of Dr. Hayes and Nordenskjöld and Lieut. Peary were all made from the W. side, and Lieut. Peary, the most successful, penetrated only 100 miles, though the Lapps of Nordenskjöld's party reached a point 135 miles from the coast.

A letter from Dr. Nansen to Mr. A. Garuel of Copenhagen, is published in *Nature*, of Nov. 22:

GODTHAAB, OCTOBER 4.

As you will know, we left the Jason, the Norwegian sealer, on July 17th, and expected to reach the shore the next day. But in this we were sadly disappointed. Screwing ice, maelstroms, impassable ice, where it was alike impossible to row or to drag the two boats, stopped us.

One of the boats was stove in, but we got it repaired again. We drifted seawards at a speed of thirty sea miles in the twenty-four hours. Drifted in the ice for twelve days. Strove hard to get to the shore, were three times on the point of succeeding, but were as often carried out to sea again by a current stronger than our power of rowing. Were once, for a whole day and night, very near perishing

in tremendous breakers of the sea against the ice-rim. After twelve days' drifting about, we managed at last to get ashore near Andretok, north of Cape Farewell, at 61° and some minutes of northern latitude. We rowed again northwards. reaching Uminik, from which point the crossing of the inland ice began on August 15th. We directed our course for Christianshaab on the western coast. Encountered severe snowstorms and had heavy ground. Estimating that it would be too late to reach Christianshaab in time for this autumn's vessel, we altered our course and steered for Godthaab, the ice-fields in that direction having besides been hitherto trodden by no one. After altering course, reached height of 10,000 feet, with temperature of 40° to 50° C. below zero. For several weeks we remained at an altitude of over 9,000 feet. Tremendous storms, loose, new-fallen snow, enormously difficult passage. Towards end of September we reached at last the western side above Godthaab. Had a perilous descent, on ugly and very uneven ice, but got safely down to Ameralik Fjord. Managed to build a kind of boat from floor of tent, bags, bamboo reeds, and willow branches. In that frail craft Sverdrup and I rowed away and arrived here on October 3.

The four men are left at Ameralik, living there on short rations fare, but will be sent for as soon as possible. There you have in short outline our Saga. We are all perfectly well, and everything has been in the best order. I hope that we may catch this steamer, and that instead of this letter you may see our sunburnt faces,

With many greetings, yours ever devotedly

FRITHIOF NANSEN.

This letter, with one from Mr. Sverdrup to his father, was sent from Ivigtut.

Mr. Sverdrup repeats Dr. Nansen's story, with one or two cheerful additions:

"I must hurry up," he says, "as we are going to dine with the parson, and, in fact, we have not had time for anything, as since arriving here we have gone from one social party to another. You may see from that how well we are off. I was the only one of our whole party who got over all the tremendous fatigues without the smallest ailment. I am and have been all the time as fresh and sound as a fish."

Hudson's Bay and Hudson's Strait as a Navigable Channel.—A paper on this subject, read before the Royal Geographical Society in June last by Commodore A. H. Markham, R. N., is published in the Society's *Proceedings* for September.

Commodore Markham gives a brief description of the

Bay (which he calls, oddly enough, the "Mediterranean Sea of North America"), a sketch of its history, and the results of his own experience.

Hudson's Bay lies between 51° and 64° N. Lat., and 78° and 95° W. Long. It is about 900 miles long and 600 wide, with an area of about 500,000 square miles. It is remarkably free from rocks and shoals, and the water has an average depth of 70 fathoms. It is added on the authority of Dr. Bell, of the Canadian Geographical Survey, that storms are rare in the Bay, that icebergs are never seen, and that fogs are infrequent and of short duration. The climate of the shores is mild and genial during the summer months, but the winters are very severe.

Hudson's Strait is a deep channel, 500 miles in length, between Labrador and the islands of Arctic America. The average breadth is 100 miles, but the narrowest part of the channel is 45 miles wide. There are no shoals nor rocks, to speak of, and the soundings in the Strait vary from 150 to 300 fathoms.

The historical account and the record of his own experiences are long and interesting, and Commodore Markham ends them with these words: "Since the keel of Hudson's good ship, the *Discovery*, ploughed the waters of the Strait (in 1610), the passage has been made over 500 times, whilst the losses due to the ice might be summed up on the fingers of one hand." He maintains that Hudson's Strait is perfectly navigable and free from ice in August, and later in the season, and that powerful steamers could make the passage without difficulty.

The question is rightly said to be a purely geograph-

ical one, but Commodore Markham has so far forgotten himself as to write, without fear of the obvious retort, that "Monopolists and persons interested in other routes represent the difficulties offered by the ice in Hudson's Strait as fatal to the success of the project," (for a line of steamers to connect with a railroad between Winnipeg and Hudson's Bay).

In the discussion that followed the reading of the paper, Dr. John Rae said that Commodore Markham's experience was limited to a single voyage, and that as for Dr. Bell, there was no one on whom he (Dr. Rae) could place less reliance in questions relating to Hudson's Bay and Hudson's Strait.

What the obstructions are in the navigation of the Strait was shown by the following extracts from the ice records kept at the stations:

"September and October, 1884 (2 stations): ice heavy and close packed in Strait 27 days; ice heavy and a little water in Strait, 23 days; foggy, 5 days; strong gales and snow, 5 days.

"Four months, June, July, August and October, 1885, three stations: ice heavy and close packed, 98 days; ice heavy and a little water seen, 54 days; foggy, 6 days; dense fog, 1 day.

"Two months, June and July, 1886, at three stations; ice heavy and close, 43 days; ice heavy and some water, 42 days; foggy, 5 days; strong gales or hurricanes, 2 days; strong gale and thick snow, 1 day."

These extracts would be more convincing if the figures did not seem to defy the rules of arithmetic; but the phenomena described beautifully illustrate Commodore Markham's notion of the Mediterranean Sea.

California.—In the *Deutsche Rundschau für Geographie und Statistik*, for November, Mr. Dionys Friedrich Rosenfeld, professor in the Hagi Christus-Lyceum at Constantinople, devotes eight pages to a sketch of California. The strictly geographical part of this sketch is fairly correct; but the statistical portion and the account of the people show that, if light comes out of the East, it does not always return to the place whence it came.

There are, according to Prof. Rosenfeld, 33 counties in California, and the capital of the State is Benicia, on Carquines Strait. The census of 1880 gives the State 53 counties, and the capital is, and has been for thirty-four years, the city of Sacramento.

The land is rightly enough described as a paradise, but it will astonish Californians to learn that the immediate neighborhood of San Francisco is the loveliest region in the State.

Prof. Rosenfeld holds very decided opinions concerning the people, many of whom, it seems, are the scum of Europe. He notes, at the same time, that the Germans are held in higher regard in California than elsewhere in the United States; a distinction which may, or may not, be due to the character of the scum. Besides the Germans, there are Irishmen, Englishmen, Chinese, Indians, a few Persians, and the Americans, "who fancy themselves the lords of the soil." There are Mexicans, also, whom Prof. Rosenfeld calls Spaniards, once wealthy, but now wrapped in their beggarly pride.

San Francisco makes a fine show, but has not a single building worthy of a great city. Everything there is matter of speculation, and the people are

given up to the grossest materialism. "No tower points to heaven in the city filled with all that is of the earth, earthy;" where the boasted American freedom is a privilege of color, and the august spirit of Christianity meets only with contempt.

The picture is gloomy, but Prof. Rosenfeld must try to possess his soul in patience. Possibly, he underestimates the Californians and overestimates himself.

M. Chaffanjon.—If this enterprising French traveller does not deceive himself, he has done remarkable work.

He has reached, we are told, the sources of the Orinoco, never before visited, has found the mountain home of the Guaharibos, and has thoroughly studied the communication, hitherto very imperfectly known, between the Orinoco and the Casiquiare.

The results of so much labor will, no doubt, be given to the world in the form of a connected narrative; but it must be confessed that the traveller's letters, of which many have been published during the past year, do not convince the reader that he has narrowed the limits of the unknown. It is noticeable that the Spanish geographers, who are at home in South America, make light of his pretensions. The Revista de Geografía Comercial, of September 15th, says that M. Chaffanjon's discoveries were made 150 years ago by many persons, among whom are the Jesuit Father Román, Diaz de la Fuente, and Bobadilla; and also in 1756 by the Marquis del Socorro, Iturriaga, and the other commissioners charged with the settlement of the boundary line with The Frenchman's haste to bestow a new name

upon the Sierra Parima, a range of mountains known for centuries, is humorously characterised as a kind of Anabaptist heresy.

It will be remembered that Count Stradelli, who has been travelling in the Orinoco country for a long time, met M. Chaffanjon at Ciudad Bolivar in April, 1887, and saw his maps, which did not bear out his claim that he had visited the source of the great river. This, however, he may have done; but the burden of proof is upon him, where so much is said to have been accomplished.

THE SOURCE OF THE MISSISSIPPI.—A telegram, dated Dec. 1, from St. Paul, Minnesota, announces the return to that place of Mr. J. V. Brower, formerly Register of the St. Cloud Land Office, who has been engaged for two months in the examination of the Itasca basin.

He is reported to have measured the inflow and outflow of all the streams, and his researches, it is said, establish the true source of the Mississippi in the centre of section 21 of the Government survey, in a small lake laid down on the maps of Jean N. Nicollet in 1836. It is added that the true source of the river has been in dispute, and that Willard Glazier's claim to have found it in 1881 is now proved to be false.

It is proper to say that Glazier's claim never was recognised for a moment by any one who had taken the pains to look into the matter. Mr. Russell Hinman of Cincinnati, in a letter to *Science*, of Aug. 13, 1886, thoroughly exposed Capt. Glazier and his methods, and Mr. Henry D. Harrower, of New York, did a similar good work in a pamphlet published two months later. Mr. Hinman detected Glazier's appropriation, word for

word and figure for figure, of a table of Meteorological Observations made by Schoolcraft in the year 1820; and Mr. Harrower printed this table.

The case was closed long ago; and the only wonder is that Mr. Brower should have remembered that there had once been such a person as Capt. Willard Glazier.

GAURISANKAR-EVEREST.—The Indian traveller Emil Schlagintweit recounts, in Petermanns Mitteilungen, Band 34, XI, the history of the name by which the highest mountain of the earth is known in England and America. The height of the mountain was ascertained by the Great Trigonometrical Survey of India between November, 1849, and January, 1850. Sir Andrew Waugh, then at the head of the Survey, proposed, first to the Indian Government, and later (in 1856) to the Royal Geographical Society, to give to this mountain the name of his predecessor in office, Sir George Everest. This proposal called out Mr Brian Houghton Hodgson, long the English Resident at Khatmandu, who declared that there were already different native names for the mountain, and that he himself always used one of these, the name Devadhunga.

The matter was discussed at a meeting of the Royal Geographical Society on the 11th of May, 1857. Sir George Everest himself was present and expressed his thanks for the honor done to him by Col. Waugh, regarding it as a recognition of the importance attached to the work of the Survey; but he thought there were peculiar difficulties in the way of adopting the name *Everest*, which the natives would find it impossible to pronounce. It could not be written, either in Persian or

in Hindi, and would be confounded with *O'Brien*, while the mountaineers might perhaps call it *Ob'ron*, but would surely miss the real word.*

Hermann Schlagintweit, who was in Nepal in 1857, wrote from Khatmandu on the 7th of March to King Friedrich Wilhelm IV. of Prussia, in these words: "This interesting line begins in the East with the heights about Kanchinjinga, to which succeeds the great group of the Deodunga, lately named Everest. * * * I had hoped until now that Mt. Everest bore the honored Old-Indian name of Deodunga; but here the whole mountain-group is called Deodunga."

The first mention of the name Gaurisankar is in Map I of the Atlas to the 1st volume of the "Results of a Scientific Mission in India and High Asia" (by the brothers Schlagintweit), published in 1861; and the authority for it is found on page 193 of the 3d volume of the same work:

† "When in spring of 1857 myvisit in Nepal enabled me to direct my telescope, in the presence of Jang Bahadur and several of his well-informed Pandits, to this mountain, which is such a prominent object in most of the views of the Sikkim and Nepal Himâlayan crest, they most positively called it Gaurisankar or Chingopamari in Tibetan; and when then asked about the other names they had mentioned to Mr. Hodgson, they repeatedly averred that they had not so clearly understood which was the particular mountain meant in the previous

^{*} Sir George added: "As another instance of the difficulty which the natives experienced in pronouncing English names, he might, among others, mention that the name of the Hon. Mr. Cavendish was pronounced by them 'Humbel go mundee.'"

Proceedings Roy. Geog. Soc., Vol I., p. 351, 1855-57.

[†] Quoted in English by Mr. Schlagintweit.

questions, alluding to the difficulty of finding the exact peak asked for without any other definition than the latitude and longitude."

The name does not appear in Hermann Schlagint-weit's letter to the King, and the reason for its absence is given on page 142, vol. 6, of the *Results*: *"The highest mountains seen from Phallut are: 1, Kanchinjinga; 2, A very high isolated peak in Nepal. Campbell wrote me some names in a letter, when I mentioned it. Seems exceedingly high. I can hear no names."

The question was not raised again until 1886, when Col. H. C. B. Tanner and Gen. Walker, Director of the Indian Survey, declared themselves in favor of the name Everest, while Mr. Douglas W. Freshfield urged with the greatest ability the claims of Gaurisankar.

The only names of the peak reported by travellers are:

- 1. B. H. Hodgson, in the *Bengal Records*, *No.* 27, *Calcutta*, 1857, gives: *In Nepalese:* Devadhunga, Bhairav Langur, Bhairavthan; *In Tibetan:* Gnalham, Nyanam Thangla.
- 2. Dr. (now Sir) J. Hooker, in the *Himalayan Journal: In Tibetan*, Tsungau.
- 3. Hermann v. Schlagintweit-Sakünlünski; In Nepalese: Gaurisankar; In Tibetan: Chingopamari.
- Mr. Emil Schlagintweit explains at some length the linguistic relations and the meanings of these names, of which Gaurisankar alone is exclusively Sanskrit.

Gauri is the name of Himavat's daughter, the wife of Siva, and is here equivalent to the kind goddess; while Sankara, the beneficent, is an appellation of Siva, and

^{*} Quoted in English by Mr. Schlagintweit.

the whole word may be translated as "The mountain of Siva and his wife Gauri."

In English and American books and atlases the moun tain, it has been said, is always *Everest*; in German and also in French publications the first place is given to *Gaurisankar*, and *Everest* is added below in smaller type. Mr. Schlagintweit proposes the double form Gaurisankar-Everest, in order to close the discussion and to save all acquired rights; but he may find that the climbing of the Himalayas was an easy task compared with the effort to make an end of controversy.

THE ERUPTION OF BANTAISAN.—This mountain, which is situated about 100 miles to the N. of Tokio, Japan, suddenly woke from the repose of 1000 years into full activity, on the 15th July, 1888. There had been for two days before slight shocks of earthquake accompanied by rumbling sounds, but the explosion was wholly unexpected.

The mountain is about 6,000 ft. high and on its N.E. flank was a subordinate peak known as Little Bantaisan, which rose above three solfataras.

Nature, of September 13, quotes the account given by the correspondent of the London Times. According to this, Little Bantaisan was blown into the air almost in the twinkling of an eye, and a few minutes later its débris had buried or devastated an area about half the size of London. The correspondent was one of a party that visited the mountain. When they climbed to the ridge behind Little Bantaisan they saw to the right the incurved rear wall, a ragged cliff falling to a depth of 600 feet. Everything in front of this had been blown away

and spread over the country for thirty square miles. A very moderate calculation makes the mass of matter so distributed at least 700,000,000 tons. A vast sheet of ash-colored earth or mud obliterated every foot of the former landscape. The streams were dammed into lakes, and not a sign of life met the eye.

Besides the rain of scalding earth and mud, heated rocks and stones, sand and hot ashes, the eruption was accompanied by awful shocks, and by winds, or whirlwinds of extraordinary vehemence. Many of the rockmasses were of enormous size, and one, which was measured, weighed at least 200 tons.

One of the most appalling features of the eruption was the amazing speed with which the mud-stream flowed. When Little Bantaisan blew up, the people of Nagasaka, a village that remained comparatively uninjured, fled across the fields towards the opposite hills. A minute later came a thick darkness. The light returned in 10 or 15 minutes, but in that time the mudtorrent had travelled the ten miles to the village and buried almost all the fugitives.

Nearly 600 persons are said to have perished, but fuller accounts may add greatly to the number.

Schweinfurth in Egypt.—In the Verhandlungen of the Berlin Gesellschaft für Erdkunde, Band XV., No. 8, Dr. G. Schweinfurth gives the results of his explorations in Egypt during the last fifteen years. The state of his health forced him to seek a southern climate, and he reproaches himself with having neglected Egypt in past years while he devoted so much attention to Central Africa; as if a man, he says, were to give deep study

to the roots of a tree, and forget the trunk and the branches.

The almost universal impression that there is nothing new to be discovered in Egypt is in part inexact and in part wholly erroneous.

The name Egypt is too often restricted in its application to the narrow Nile valley, the Egypt of the classical world. We are largely indebted for our knowledge of this region to the French expedition under Bonaparte. It is when we look at the blank spaces on the maps of the Libyan and the Arabian Desert that we see what a mistake it is to regard our acquaintance with Egyptian geography as complete.

Dr. Schweinfurth begins his report with his journey in 1874 to, the great oasis in the Libyan Desert, where his observations supplemented those made at the same time by Rohlfs.

In 1876 the first exploring expedition to the interior of the Arabian Desert was undertaken by Schweinfurth in conjunction with Dr. P. Güssfeldt. Starting from Benisuef on the Nile, they went eastward to Wady Arabah and the Red Sea, then south to the eastern slope of the Galala plateau, and thence westward to the Nile. Twenty-two points were astronomically established, and a number of elevations barometrically determined; and the geological results were important.

A second journey in the Arabian Desert was made the next year by Schweinfurth, who started from El-Tibîn, above Cairo, and went to the east through the Wady-Warâg. He explored the Galala table-land, and struck the Nile, on his return, at Keneh. The mineralogical specimens collected on this journey are now in the Museum at Berlin. The maps are still in MS. Still a third journey in the same direction was made in 1878, the point of departure being near Atfeh, which is forty miles S. of Cairo, and the line of travel E.S.E. along the Wady Naumieh to its origin in the heights of the northern Galala, and thence to the Wady Arabah. The side-valleys of the Wady were visited where they cut into the plateau of the southern Galala.

The maps of this exploration are not yet made public, but they complete, it is said, the cartography of the eastern part of the Desert.

In 1879 a geological excursion was made in the northern part of the Desert between Cairo and Suez. This was repeated and extended the following year, and the summer of 1880 was spent in botanizing in the Lebanon.

In 1881 Schweinfurth was joined by Riebeck in a visit to the northern part of the Desert, and the two scientists, later in the year, made an exploration of the island of Socotra. The next year Schweinfurth made a long journey in Upper Egypt and mapped the western limits of the Nile valley. His map, as yet unpublished, is in the Berlin Bergakademie. In 1883 he made a vovage to the Marmarica (Cyrenaica), and in 1884 devoted himself to an accurate geological examination of the plain of the Pyramids and the western border of the Nile valley; passing afterwards through the Desert to the He was the first traveller to make the tour of Fayoum. the Birket-el-Kerun, since Martin's reconnoissance in In the north of the Birket-el-Kerun he found a hitherto unknown, well-preserved temple of the XIIIth Dynasty, and his survey showed that the outline of the reservoir on the existing maps was very defective.

The longest journey was made in 1884-85, a distance of 1500 miles through the Arabian Desert.

The route was carefully mapped, according to Schweinfurth's practice, but the map is still withheld.

The great traveller is incredulous with regard to Lake Moeris. He says: "The hypotheses which Mr. Whitehouse has set before the world with so much enthusiasm, as to the site and the circumference of the ancient Lake Moeris, are not confirmed by the observations I have so far made;" and farther on he adds: "Mr. Whitehouse seeks to establish a connection between the ancient Lake Moeris and the depression of the surface in the southern part of the reservoir; but this depression shows no trace of a fresh-water deposit, and it cannot be filled from the Nile."

Mr. Whitehouse has the English engineers on his side, and in such a conflict of authorities there seems to be but one way to settle the question, and that is to fill the basin from the Nile.

Arsinoe was explored in 1886, and a geological excursion was made to the Isthmus of Suez. In 1887, Dr. Schweinfurth made another journey in the Arabian Desert and geological explorations around the Pyramids; and in 1888 he joined Virchow and Schliemann in a visit to the Fayoum. According to the latest advices he is now in Arabia, devoting himself to the study of the coffee-tree.

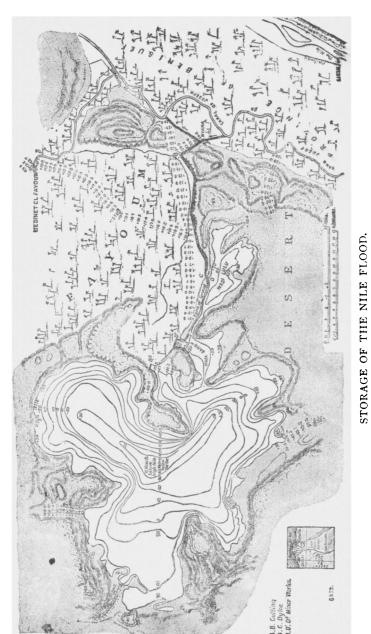
THE STORAGE OF THE NILE FLOOD.—In an address before the London Chamber of Commerce on the 1st of November, reported in the *Chamber of Commerce Journal*, and illustrated by the map here reproduced,

Mr. Cope Whitehouse explained in detail his plan for storing the water of the Nile in the Raian Reservoir, a valley discovered by himself in the desert to the west of the river and about 70 miles south-southwest of Cairo.

The figures given in the address are convincing. At low Nile the supply of water passing the cataracts at Assouan is estimated at 50,000,000 cubic metres a day. The area of land only partially cultivated or wholly neglected in Egypt is more than 3,000,000 acres. make this fertile, 4,000,000,000 cubic metres of water should be stored for use during the hundred days from February to June. The volume of the High Nile is ten times that of the Low Nile, and even in the worst seasons an enormous excess escapes into the sea. Raian Reservoir when filled would make a lake larger than the Lake of Geneva, and 250 feet deep, and, allowing for evaporation, would furnish 5,000,000,000 cubic Of the four possible channels between this Basin and the Nile Valley, Mr. Whitehouse has selected, after careful comparison of all the surveys, the one known as the Myana Pass. This is about 12 miles in length, and the cost of construction would be about \$1,000,000.

Adding to the actual outlay for the Reservoir a further sum for drainage and other subsidiary works, the total expenditure in fifteen years might be \$15,000,000. The land tax of Egypt is officially stated at £5,299,965, or about \$26,000,000. The revenue is £9,600,000, or \$48,000,000. The increased tax would amount at present rates to \$10,000,000, and the additional revenue to \$17,000,000. The area and productive wealth of Egypt would be augmented by more than one-third.

Mr. Whitehouse and those who are interested with



him have made an offer to the Egyptian Government to find the money necessary for the undertaking, and also to keep the works in operation on very easy terms, giving the Government the right to purchase them ultimately at a low price.

The conception of this enterprise is entirely due to Mr. Cope Whitehouse, who has displayed remarkable energy and perseverance in vindicating and perfecting his plans in the face of discouragement and incredulity.

MR. WHYDAH.—Strange things are done in Africa—and elsewhere.

The Revue Française, of October 1, tells us that Admiral Hewett blockaded the coast of Dahomey, in the year 1875, in order to punish the king of that country for outrages upon "Mr. Whydah," an English merchant.

It is true that an Englishman was ill-treated in Dahomey and that a British man-of-war did exact reparation for the wrong in 1876, if not in 1875; but "Mr. Whydah" is evidently the well-known seaport on the Slave Coast.

The *Revue*, without the fear of La Fontaine before its eyes, has taken the Piræus for a man.

British East Africa.—Whatever may be the outcome of the British and German debate concerning Zanzibar, the African mainland in that neighborhood seems to be worth an effort. Mr. H. H. Johnston, who should know something of the matter, writes in the Fortnightly Review, for October, an article all aglow with admiration of the beauties and the resources of the territory ceded to the British East African Com-

pany, the "germ of a great empire of which it is the natural outlet."

The region covers 67,000 square miles, and stretches in a N. W. direction from the Indian Ocean to the Victoria Nyanza, its S. boundary rounding the base of Mt. Kilimanjaro, now a German mountain, and the N. limit lying beyond Mt. Kenia, which, being British, is or ought to be the loftiest peak in Africa.

The land is well watered and well wooded, a country of highlands and plateaux, with the climate and the flora of the temperate zone, though there is a tropical heat in the following description:

"The dazzling snow peaks suspended in the blue heavens, the black gulfs of the mile-wide craters, the countless cascades of the mountain torrents, the jagged outline of the distant violet-grey sierras, the shimmering azure of the hill-encircled lakes, the wide, breezy, grassy plains dotted with red ant-hills and slowly-moving herds of antelope and wildly-careering ostriches, the satin sheen of the banana plantations, the sparkling crystalline whiteness of the salt plains, the graceful clumps of bluishgreen papyrus in the shallow pools and marshes that are the habitat of pink flamingos, white egrets, grey pelicans, and the Hagedash ibis, which is a walking rainbow; the luxuriant greenery of the tropical forests, with their velvet-foliaged albizzias, their stately sterculias, sycamores, and parinariums, their india-rubber creepers, their emerald-green Ensetes (wild plantains), their wild date-palms, and their plume-like Raphias with the blood-red midribs to their fronds; the natural parks, planted (by Nature) with clumps of shady acacias and "specimens" (one almost expects to see the name-ticket on them) of

elegant Borassus palms, and the orange-painted, branching, bushy *Hyphoene thebaica*, with its glaucous-colored, fan-shaped foliage."

The flight so well begun sinks into prose towards the end, and the writer is able to tell us calmly enough that the soil of British East Africa will produce nearly everything. Cattle abound, and the climate is favorable to all the domestic animals. The greatest heat registered near the E. of Kilimanjaro was 81°, and in the warmest part of the interior 91°. The average night temperature in the hilly districts is 60°; in the plains 68°.

On the Victoria Nyanza there are a few rainy days in each month; but in the rest of the country, from June to the end of October there is almost no rain, and between November and May there is an abundant rain-fall during certain months.

The population is divided into the Masai and their helot races on the plains, and the Bantu peoples in the mountains. It is everywhere thin, except on the Victoria Nyanza, where there are between ten and twelve millions of people. The Bantu is everywhere a cultivator and a born trader. The Masai, formerly professed robbers and cattle-lifters, are learning to enjoy the sweets of traffic, and Mr. Johnston has great hopes of them. On the whole, if the country to the S. of Kilimanjaro is like that to the N. of it, Germany and England may conclude that the lines have fallen to them in pleasant places.

Mr. Johnston thinks the wild animals, and especially the lion, should be protected; though how the lion is to be preserved without sacrificing other beasts he does not explain. "The lion and the tiger," he says, "should be regarded as privileged animals;" and he thinks it a most pitiable thing that the Government of India persists in exterminating the tiger. As a disciple of Malthus, Mr. Johnston is perhaps convinced that the population of India is rapidly overtaking its means of subsistence, and he values the tiger, accordingly, as an active member of the Society for the Suppression of Hindoos. This view of the case would meet with general recognition, if Johnston were a Hindoo family name.

A CORNER OF DUTCH NEW GUINEA.—A paper in Cosmos, Vol. IX., No. VII., by F. S. A. De Clercq, Dutch Resident at Ternate, describes a visit made in 1887 to the islands of Kumamba, Mor, and Wiak, on the eastern side of Geelvink Bay. With this paper begins a series of articles on Papuasia, in continuation of those published several years ago in Vols. I.—IV. of Cosmos.

It is not easy to identify places in New Guinea, for the maps give one name, the traders another, and the natives a third—and the true one—to the same point, or island. The three islands above mentioned are grouped on the maps as the Arimoa, while they are known to the natives in the order given as Liki, Lansutu, and Armofin.

Mr. De Clercq stopped first at Liki, where canoes, each carrying one or two men, put off to meet the steamer. Each canoe was made of the trunk of a tree hollowed out, and the sides were raised by boards fastened on at such an angle as to interfere with the freedom of the rower when seated. This method of construction is found on other parts of the coast, and had its origin in the practice of standing up to manage the long oars;

though in the present case the rowers sat with one leg over the other.

The natives, when they boarded the steamer, were friendly and entirely at their ease. They were robust and healthy looking, with dark skins and very thick hair, and some had full beards; their hair hung down in tresses, and some wore a kind of wig or skull-cap.* Very many wore, hanging from the nose, two hog's teeth, and a band of dogs' teeth passed around the chest and under the arms to the back, a collar of round bits of shell, and on the legs and arms tight, woven bands; these, and a patch of shredded bark secured around the middle, made up the whole costume. Their arms were long arrows and carved bows.

The women were withered and ugly. They wore their hair in tresses and had thin pieces of shell thrust through the nose. For clothing they had two aprons of bark, one hanging in front and one behind, and fastened with a rattan cord, and they wore a profusion of trinkets made of the pith of the scarlet saga bean and ornaments of tortoise shell. A string passed around the forehead and behind the ears sustained a bag in which were carried tobacco and pinang (betel); and in the bracelets of the forearm were stuck little spoons made of pigs' teeth and used for scooping out the cocoanuts.

The island was covered with a dense vegetation, which hid from sight the few settlements. One of these, called Béarikwar, was examined by Mr. De Clercq. There were two rows of houses, about 40 in all, built at

These wigs, called *dubirau*, were made of human skin, taken ordinarily from the heads of those who had died a natural death. To keep them in their place, they are tied with a ribbon around the forehead.

regular distances in a direction from southwest to northeast, with a broad street in the middle and a temple at the eastern end. The houses rested on posts about 3 feet high and were surrounded by fences made of the ribs of the sago-palm leaves, carefully bound together. There were two openings, one in front and one in the rear, and each closed with a kind of portcullis, made also of the sago-palm. A tree-trunk, with steps cut in it, led to the opening. The roofs were of palm-leaves and descended to within about 18 inches of the ground. The enclosures were planted with the laurel-like *codi-æum*.

The temple, which is called *tosi*, had no visible opening, all the cracks even being closed with dried leaves. The people vie with one another in making offerings to the spirits of the departed; but the custom is for the youths to assemble in a small building at a little dis-When the western trades blow, bonfires are kept up around the tosi day and night. meet and pass their time in singing to the sound of the flutes and the tifa. Dishes of various kinds are kept ready prepared in the houses and are brought by the young men, and sometimes fires are made of the The purpose of these ceremonies is fruits of the forest. to ward off misfortunes by doing homage to the spirits. It is in the temple that the heads of enemies slain in battle are deposited. Access to the temple is forbidden to the women, and no one is allowed to speak or to make a noise near it; but the uproar and the shouting within have no limit.

Usage requires a man to carry off his wife by force. In the struggle the man is slightly wounded with an

arrow, and then the girl is given up, so that she may cure him. The dowry consists of strings of dogs' teeth and other ornaments.

The natives count as far as five: tès, lu, taur, fau, lim. They have a word for ten, sinafun, and they count also on their fingers, but they never go beyond five. They seemed to be on good terms with their neighbors.

In the island of Mor, Mr. De Clercq found the people not so dark as those of Kumamba, whom in general they resembled. Their houses were unlike the other Papuan dwellings, so far as concerned the interior arrangement. There was but one room, and in this, at the height of about 3 feet from the floor, were oblong niches around the wall, at a short distance apart, closed on four sides and provided with a little quadrangular opening on the inside. These were sleeping-places; and alongside of them were baskets, filled with domestic utensils, provisions, and fire wood; and in one corner a layer of sand and a few cylindrical stones formed the kitchen.

From the roof were suspended the dishes and arrows and fishing apparatus.

The natives employ themselves in fishing, and in agriculture, this being the work of the women.

When any one dies his relations carve an image, and to this a special value is attached. Mr. De Clercq was unable to procure one, the belief being that he who parts with such an image will speedily perish by a violent death.

The people of Mor carry their numeration beyond that of their neighbors. From one to five the names are: tata, rurò, òrò, aò, rimò. Six is rimò tata, seven rimò

rurò, and so on to ten, which is taurà. Eleven, taurà tata, begins a new series of repetitions, up to twenty, which is nautata. Beyond twenty Mr. De Clercq does not go.

In a note to this paper Mr. Guido Cora, the editor of *Cosmos*, very properly calls attention to the fact that Mr. De Clercq's more extended observations corroborate the report made by the distinguished Italian traveller Beccari, who saw these islands in December, 1875, from the deck of the Dutch transport "Soerabaja."

The commander of this vessel, it is said, allowed Beccari just *five minutes* to get what information he could from the islanders who boarded the steamer, which was so far from being short of fuel that when she had reached Dorei (at the N.W. extremity of Geelvink Bay), there were still 200 tons of coal aboard.

"Probably," says Mr. Cora, "it was not desirable to give the Italian explorer an opportunity to visit places not yet well known to the Dutch."

This may be true, but then again it may not; and there does not seem to be any great difference in spirit between the Dutch commander's supposed jealousy of the Italian and Mr. Cora's readiness to think evil of the Dutchman.

Domingo F. Sarmiento.—This distinguished man, ex-President of the Argentine Republic, died on the 11th of September at Asuncion, Paraguay, in the 78th year of his age. He had spent, says the *Boletin del Instituto Geográfico Argentino*, sixty-two years in the service of his country, taking an active part in all public concerns, coming into collision with prejudices, and fac-

ing in the ceaseless struggle the fury of passion, but preserving from the beginning to the end a reputation without spot or blemish.

His zeal in the cause of education and his liberal ideas had brought him into relations with many of the most enlightened men in the United States and in Europe. He was an Honorary Member of the Argentine Geographical Institute, and freely used his influence and his means to promote the exploration and development of the vast national territory.

CESARE CORRENTI.—This eminent Italian, equally remarkable as a patriot, a statesman, and a scientist, died at Meina, on Lago Maggiore, on the 4th of October last, at the age of 73 years.

The *Bollettino* of the Italian Geographical Society, for October–November, says of him:

"From the foundation of this Society he was among its most earnest supporters and associates; he was its President from the year 1873 to 1879; it was he who organized and sent out the Italian expedition to Equatorial Africa, under the conduct of the Marquis O. Antinori; and he was unwearied in promoting the interests of the Society, and the progress of geographical exploration and of geographical studies in Italy."

PRJEVALSKY. — This Russian geographer, one of the greatest among the explorers of Asia, died recently (the date not given) at Vyernyi, in the Eastern Thian-Shan Mountains. He was making ready for a fifth attempt to reach Lhassa, the Holy City of Tibet, from which he had been so often obliged to turn back.

More than any other man, Prjevalsky established the geography of Central Asia on a firm foundation. He possessed all the qualifications of a scientific traveller, and his death, at the early age of fifty, is an irreparable loss.

WILLIAM GIFFORD PALGRAVE.—Mr. Palgrave, whose work on "Central and Eastern Arabia" has been a classic for twenty years, died on the 30th September at Monte Video, where he had been for some years the British Minister-Resident and Consul-General. In Uruguay his special qualifications as an unsurpassed Arabic scholar and Orientalist were certainly wasted, and the sharp criticisms made upon the Government for relegating him to such an exile may be said to have been deserved; but Governments must often do what they can and not what they would.

Mr. Palgrave was a Jesuit priest when he went to Arabia on a mission from the Emperor Napoleon III. Soon after his return he left the order, entered the service of his own Government, and held successively various consular posts.

Besides the "Arabia," he wrote "Essays on Eastern Questions" and "Dutch Guiana," both works of permanent value.

LA GEOGRAPHIE.—A fortnightly journal, under this name, made its appearance at Paris, on the 15th October.

It is intended to aid in the diffusion of geographical knowledge in France. The number of November 25 contains a letter from Charles Soller, the African traveller, and an original map, on a scale of 1:8,000,000, from his notes of the caravan routes in the Western Sahara.

Ancient Rome in the Light of Recent Discoveries.— By Rodolfo Lanciani, LL.D. (Harv.) With One Hundred Illustrations. Houghton, Mifflin & Co., Boston and New York, 1888.

This beautiful book is nothing less than a revelation, even for those who have had from time to time a hint of the work that was going on in Rome; for here they find disposed in order, and explained, the discoveries that have reconstituted within fifteen years the whole subject of Roman archæology.

Mr. Lanciani is the Director of Excavations for the National Government and the Municipality of Rome. One year ago he visited America, and gave, in a course of lectures, an outline of the changes in Rome.

A few lines of statistics from his preface are impress-In the 14 years between January 1, 1872, and December 31, 1885, 82 miles of new streets were opened, paved, drained and built; new quarters have sprung up which cover an area of 1,158 acres; 3,094 houses have been built, or enlarged, with an addition of 95,260 rooms. The objects brought to light by these operations are innumerable, and Mr. Lanciani does not pretend to have counted them; but the Capitol alone has been enriched since 1872 with the following articles: 705 amphoræ, 2,360 terra-cotta lamps, 1,824 inscriptions on marble or stone, 77 columns of rare marble, 313 pieces of columns, 157 marble capitals, 118 bases, 500 works of art in terra cotta, 405 bronzes, 711 gems, intaglios and cameos, 18 marble sarcophagi, 152 bas-reliefs, 192 marble statues, 21 marble figures of animals, 266 busts and heads, 54 pictures in polychrome mosaic, 47 objects of gold, 30 of silver, 36,679 coins of gold, silver and bronze, and an almost incredible amount of smaller relics of every material.

There have been discovered the stratum of prehistoric or traditional antiquities; a necropolis older than the walls of Servius Tullius and containing more than 5,000 archaic specimens; more than,5,000 feet of the great agger of Servius, and the site of fourteen gates; and the remains of numberless houses and palaces, temples and shrines, roads and drains, porticoes, etc., covering an area of 3,967,200 square metres of the ancient city.

Mr. Lanciani deals very plainly with the false sentiment that has so loudly bewailed the ruin wrought in the picturesque old Rome by these works of excavation and improvement. To satisfy such a sentiment, he says, it would have been desirable to have had Rome annihilated at the end of the fifth century, so that it might be excavated as a buried city. It might be added that the living inhabitants of a famous place have a right to live and to move, to build and to rebuild their home; and, further, that the people of London and Paris and New York, who fancy that Rome is dearer to them than to the Romans, would do well to inquire how many of the historic parts of their own cities have been sacredly preserved.

The book is brought out in a style every way worthy of its fascinating contents.

Western China: A Journey to the Great Buddhist Centre of Mont Omei.—By Rev. Virgil C. Hart, B. D. Fellow of the Royal Asiatic Society. Illustrated.

Boston: Ticknor & Co., 1888.

Mr, Hart, with three companions, the Rev. Ernest

Faber, Arthur Morley, M. D., and the Rev. H. O. Cady, left Hankow early in April, 1887, for the West of China, their object being the re-establishment of the American Methodist Episcopal Mission at Chung-King, the scene of the destructive riot in July, 1886.

A long residence in China, and a thorough acquaintance with the language and the people, enabled Mr. Hart to profit by what he saw and heard, and he has produced one of the most instructive of recent works on the great Empire.

As far as Ichang the voyage was made in a steamer; beyond that point in native boats. The country was everywhere well cultivated—in some places remarkably so—and the scenery in the frequent gorges and along the rapids was strikingly grand. Sz-Chuan is one of the richest provinces of China, and seems to produce in abundance nearly every kind of crop, from potatoes to cotton. Near Kwei-cheu, a town which contains 2 mosques and 500 Mohammedan families, besides a Roman Catholic Church and 100 families of that faith, Mr. Hart first noticed the poppy plantations.

These became more numerous farther on, and of one place, beyond the Hu rapid, when the travellers had gone ashore to visit a little town that charmed them with its situation in the midst of well-cultivated hills and fields and its aspect of prosperity and cleanliness, Mr. Hart writes:

"The sallow complexion of the people, their emaciated forms and languid movements, attract our attention. . . . I do not see a beautiful face or figure, nor a rosy cheek; a dead leaden color is on all faces, old and young, male and female. . . . Upon the mountain sides

are houses and hundreds of workmen; approach those busy laborers and you will see this death-like pallor on all faces. The climate seems the acme of perfection yet there is a want of energy and life among the people."

The explanation of this shadow of death over a busy community of laborers is found by Mr. Hart in a poppyfield; and he apostrophizes the "seductive viper, curse of millions," without perceiving that his description proves too much. If the opium-eating laborers are listless and devoid of energy, who keeps up the cultivation of the smiling region, with its superabundant products

It was at the end of June that Mr. Hart and Dr. Morley left Chung-King to make their way in sedan chairs and by water to Mount Omei. On the way they distributed or sold a number of the Scriptures and tracts, but Mr. Hart's satisfaction in this good work was not unmixed, for on his return he found the people of one place gathered around a bonfire and feeding it with the books he had left among them.

The travellers went out of their road to visit the great salt-wells at Tsz-liu-tsin, about 175 miles S. W. of Chung-King. The frames, from 60 to 160 feet in height, above these innumerable wells, are visible at a distance of ten miles from the city. The wells, 6 inches in diameter, are bored through the solid rock to depths of from 2000 to 5000 feet; and they have been in operation for 1700 years. A particular well sometimes gives out and remains dry for an indefinite time, and then begins to flow again. The brine is carried to the boiling-vats through bamboo pipes. Mr. Hart saw the operation of hoisting the full tube at one well. Three water-

buffaloes turned a horizontal wheel, 22 feet in diameter, and brought up in a few minutes from a depth of 3300 feet about 300 lbs. of the brine. The manager of this well, when asked how long he had been in the business, laughed and replied: "Ever since the first Emperor of the Min dynasty; for twenty generations, sir." Mr. Hart regards the establishment and maintenance of these wells as the greatest of Chinese achievements, not excepting the Great Wall.

Mount Omei lies about two days' journey beyond Kia-ting-foo, on the upper Yang-tse-kiang, and is described as "a centre of natural and artificial] wonders, the like of which may not be found elsewhere upon the globe;" a description which a good many other persons might be found ready to apply to a good many other There are mountains chiselled into the forms of idols, colossal bronze statues, pagodas, and one temple of rich bronze, and, above all, the Great Omei mountain, rising more than 11,000 feet in height. these wonders are found within a radius of 40 miles from Kia-ting-foo. A mile or two below the city, on the face of a cliff that goes down sheer to the water, is the famous sitting Mi-lêh Buddha, a figure carved out of the solid rock, and over three hundred feet high. are small trees growing from the head of this statue.

The bronze temple, already mentioned, no longer exists. It was destroyed by fire in 1851 and now lies in a heap of twisted and broken metal. It was sixteen feet square and thirty feet in height, in three stories.

Mr. Hart devotes nearly 100 pages to the description of this far-away wonderland, and closes with some suggestions for more effective missionary work in China.

The Capitals of Spanish America.—By William Eleroy Curtis. Illustrated.

New York: Harper & Brothers, 1888.

Mr. Curtis was a member of the South American Commission, appointed by President Arthur to visit the countries of Central and South America for the purpose of establishing closer commercial and political relations between them and the United States.

Out of this mission came the present work. was a book to be made, and Mr. Curtis has made it by gathering facts and the semblance of facts out of other books and working them into a kind of shape with observations of his own, some happy and just, but much the greater part wholly beside the mark. He had no preparation for the task he undertook. The evidences of his misinformation concerning Spain and Spanish America, the Spanish language, and, in a word, all things Spanish and Portuguese, abound throughout his pages. Some of the blunders are undoubtedly due to the proofreader, but it is Mr. Curtis himself who calls the Chilenos Chillanos, and makes the Spaniards shout in Norman French, Oyez, oyez, at the telephone, and translates Maria Carmen, "Mary of Blood." The Portuguese name, Rio de Janeiro, being unfamiliar to mankind, Mr. Curtis writes out for it a pronunciation, the only use of which will be, in the words of the famous New Guide, "to make any one speak very bad the fore-mentioned idiom;" and strong in innocence as in triple mail, he does not shrink from complimenting educated Mexicans on their knowledge of their own tongue.

His references to ancient history, sacred and profane, are not less original than his Spanish and Portuguese.

Guatemala, he says (p. 68), was buried, "like Sodom and Pompeii," by a mass of ashes and sand; and we are told on p. 701 that Demosthenes could make an audience weep or laugh at will by "simply uttering 'Mesopotamia.'"

The volume is rich in illustrations, many of them old acquaintances, and, naturally, somewhat the worse for wear.

Leaves from an Egyptian Note-Book.—By Isaac Taylor, M.A., Litt. D., Hon. LL.D., Canon of York.

London: Kegan, Paul, Trench & Co., 1888.

Canon Taylor's book consists of notes of conversations with Egyptians on politics and religion. "I went to Egypt," he says, "the head-quarters of Islam, in order to investigate the truth of certain assertions which have of late been freely made as to the barbarism, ignorance, profligacy and intolerance of Mahommedan nations. . . . I have held long and interesting discussions, not only with Europeans resident in Egypt, and with men who fill important posts in the Egyptian government, but with Moslems of every class, who have conversed, without reserve, on the tenets of Islam, and on the condition and prospects of their country and their religion."

Mr. Taylor found, among the Pashas of Cairo and in the schools a degree of culture for which he was not prepared. In one day he visited two Pashas, who were well up in mathematics, and generally so highly cultivated that he asks how many morning calls one would have to pay in London before coming across hosts so intelligent and so accomplished. The answer depends upon circumstances. If Canon Taylor called upon the right persons and found them at home, he would come across more than two Pashas in London who could discuss Darwin and mathematics with him.

There was no sign in Cairo of the intolerance imputed to Mahommedans. The people are sincere believers, but Mr. Taylor thinks there is less religious fanaticism in Egypt than in England. He found the learned Moslems familiar with the Bible as well as with the Koran, and he quotes the liberal expressions of one scholar with whom he talked: "We," said the Moslem, "welcome the fullest discussion; it can only serve to bring out the truth Our religion, like yours, has been corrupted If we return to the pure teaching of Mahommed, and you return to the pure teaching of Jesus Christ and his Apostles, we shall find few points of difference to divide us."

The Pashas were ready to speak, not only of religion, but of polygamy and morals; and they astonished Mr. Taylor by telling him that 95 per cent. of their class in Cairo had only one wife. All the Mahommedans with whom Mr. Taylor conversed were, without exception, in favor of the legal prohibition of polygamy; and one, a lawyer, said that if the Khedive were to issue an ordinance to that effect, it would be accepted without serious objection.

As for the personal morality of the Pashas, and their freedom from vice, Mr. Taylor had the direct testimony of the gentlemen themselves. They assured him that they were respectable persons, and that their lives were beyond reproach.

Three of the time-honored Egyptian institutions, the kourbash, or whip, the corvée, or forced labor, and slav-

ery, find favor in Canon Taylor's eyes. Pasha and peasant alike think the abolition of the *kourbash* was an English mistake; the Pashas, because it has made government more difficult, and the peasants, because they prefer the stick to the prison. The *corvée*, which also has been suppressed, had made it possible to execute the great public works in Egypt, and the objections to it are, Mr. Taylor thinks, sentimental rather than practical. His conclusion with regard to slavery has a strangely familiar sound of the olden time: "The slaves whom I have seen were sleek and well clad, and did not appear to be discontented with their lot."

The main argument of the book, if it be not meant for an imitation of the *Lettres Persanes*, is that Egypt ought to be governed by the English after the immemorial Egyptian methods. The labored comparisons and contrasts of Christian with Mahommedan religious faith and morality, personal and social, have no serious meaning. The subjects are at once too complicated and too intangible to be dealt with; and common sense refuses to believe that the average human nature, even of Mahommedans, moves on any such lofty plane as that described by the Canon of York.

It may be a question whether the English ought to be in Egypt; but there they are, and it is their duty to see that the country is governed with all possible regard to their responsibilities as a civilized nation. TITLES OF PAPERS IN GEOGRAPHICAL JOURNALS

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